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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EXTENT TO WHICH WELFARE EFFECTS THE
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION, SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT, VALUE
ORIENTATION, AND LEVEL OF ASPIRATION OF
CHILDREN IN THE EDMONTON SEPARATE
SCHOOL SYSTEM

BY

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A THESIS

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "An Investigation of the Extent to which Welfare Effects the Achievement Motivation, School Achievement, Value Orientation, and Level of Aspiration of Children in the Edmonton Separate School System" submitted by Lloyd Johan Njaa in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis was designed to investigate the relationship between social welfare and achievement. Because some teachers and educators believe that welfare children experience difficulty in learning in a school setting, the logical step was to set up a study to investigate if their beliefs could be substantiated by fact.

A sample of students in the Junior High Schools from welfare homes was compared with a matched sample of students in Junior High Schools from non-welfare homes. They were matched for sex, religion, grade, intelligence quotient, ethnic background, and socio-economic status.

The Thematic Apperception Test, Rosen's Value Orientations Scale and Rosen's Level of Aspiration Scale were administered to the two groups. The year-end results of the two groups were compared on six subject areas.

The Rosen Value Orientation Scale was administered to the parents in the form of an interview.

It was predicted that the welfare sample would attain lower scores on all the instruments employed. The results indicate that the welfare sample did attain lower scores on all the instruments, but the differences in most cases were not large enough to be statistically significant at the .05 level of significance. The present-future

value orientation, the total value orientation scale and the academic achievement were significant at the .05 level of significance.

Alienation, directly or indirectly, is suggested as a plausible explanation of the lower school achievement of the welfare children.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION OF THE PROBLEM

The number of individuals receiving social welfare is increasing in Alberta at a very rapid rate. Over a period of one year in this province, the number of family units in receipt of assistance under the social allowance program increased by over fifty-eight per cent. The number of family units cared for under the social assistance program in the same year increased by just over twenty-five per cent. (Annual Report of Public Welfare Services, 1964)

Not only has the number of welfare children increased but also an expression of the problems that they create within the school setting has become more noticeable. Teachers and administrators have indicated the difficulty that they are experiencing in getting these children to learn. This has also been reported by other educators. Riessman (1962) states that;

Whether or not the child is socially and emotionally well adjusted makes a difference, too. If he is happy in his group, not too much smaller or larger physically than the other children, is as well cared for as the others, leaves a happy home to go off to school in the morning and returns to it at the end of the day--these factors also have to be considered as important. If parents do not get along together, if parents are separated, if parents praise some of the children in the family and scold others, he will be emotionally insecure, and the chances are that he will be more likely to have reading difficulties.

If one could classify welfare children as culturally deprived, there is ample material in related literature to suggest reasons for difficulties in learning. Riessman (1962) gives a partial list of the conventional reasons.

1. The lack of an educational tradition in the home such as scarcity of books.

2. Insufficient language and reading skills.

3. Inadequate motivation to pursue a long-range educational career and poor estimates of self.

4. Antagonism toward the school and teacher.

5. Poor health, improper diet, frequent moving and noisy, television-ridden homes.

On examining the public welfare services, the writer found that in order to make application for assistance a person must consider himself in economic need and must be prepared to assume certain responsibilities in determining this need. It is necessary to produce evidence that every possibility of self-support has been explored. A sworn statement indicating present and potential income and assets must be made, supported, if necessary, by the findings of a welfare representative's investigation. While receiving assistance, the recipient must report any changes in income.

Although the whole philosophy of social welfare is based on the belief of the dignity and worth of the individual and the right of every individual to assistance if a need is demonstrated, The recipients appear to have

emotional feelings and negative attitudes toward the assistance. These feelings and attitudes appear to be the result of the history of social assistance which include the recipient being placed on a poor list and being put up to the public as one who could not support himself.

(Bornet, 1960)

The reason for these added restrictions seems to be that by creating a very degrading existence, the individual would be motivated to get out and improve the situation.

. . . he must be set apart and above all feel properly humble and sufficiently unentitled to benefits that he will be motivated toward self-dependence by loss of certain freedoms . . . and by the pressure of unmet needs.
(Towle, 1953, Introduction)

From Merton's theory of alienation and considering the inability of the welfare recipients to fulfill a primary goal in our society, it was assumed that welfare recipients would tend to be alienated from society. The question then was to discover what alienation would do to school children from welfare homes. To accomplish this, a sample of students in the Junior High School from welfare homes, was compared with a matched sample of students in Junior High School from non-welfare homes.

The instruments used to compare these groups (described in detail in Chapter IV) were the Thematic

Apperception Test (TAT throughout the thesis), Rosen's Level of Aspiration Questionnaire, Rosen's Value Orientation, and the results on the June final examinations set by the individual teachers. In addition to this, the parents of all the students tested were interviewed. This interview was the Rosen Value Orientation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

To most humans--philosopher or carpenter, adult or child--the attainment of certain achievement goals and the corresponding attendant approval from self and others is an important source of security and personal satisfaction.

Achievement, *n* achievement, and aspiration level quite often appear to converge in a study of personality characteristics and value orientations. This review of the related literature will consider all these factors.

Crandall (1963) summarizes the numerous variables which have been found that related to *n* achievement.

They are as follows:

level of aspiration, risk-taking, perceptual-field dependence, autokinetic movement, problem-solving effectiveness, preference for active static images, creativity, verbal learning, maze learning, stimulus generalization, recall of interrupted and completed tasks, fluency of speech, academic movement, vocational choice, choice of work partners and general self concept. Many of these factors are often considered as personality traits.
(pp. 436)

Winterbottom (Atkinson, 1958) compared children's *n* achievement with teachers' rating of school performance. High *n* achievement students as contrasted with low *n* achievement peers were rated as displaying stronger *n*

achievement not only in general achievement but also in sports. He also reported that they displayed greater independence in problem-solving and pleasure in attaining success. Rosen (1959, pp. 185-218), in comparing a group of high n achievement boys with a matched sample (for age, I.Q., and social class), found that the high n achievement sample were more competitive, asked for less help from their parents, were more self-reliant, and were more proficient in the problem-solving tasks.

Taylor (1964) observes the relationship between traits and academic achievement. Among the observations he makes, the following are relevant:

1. The value the student places upon his own worth affects his academic achievement.
2. The ability to perform and/or accept authority demands will determine the amount of academic success.
3. The less conflict over independence--dependence relationships a student copes with, the more effort he places on achievement.
4. Activities which are centered around academic interest are more likely to produce successful achievement.
5. The more realistic the goal, the more chance there is of successful completion of the goal.

Mischel (1961) found a relationship in children, between n achievement and a willingness to delay

immediate gratification in favor of less-immediate goals or rewards. This pattern of delayed gratification associated with high n achievement was not typical of lower class children. Schneider and Lysgaard (1953) in an investigation of lower class children, three characteristics were found to be prevalent: (a) lack of comprehension, (b) a humble reaction, (c) a derisive reaction. These characteristics were represented by the following statements respectively:

1. What's the point of this sort of behavior?
2. This education business isn't for the likes of me.
3. You're a sissy to study, to save, to defer.

Studies of achievers thus suggest that they have submitted to the pressures of society and have largely internalized values. They value scholastic achievement, competition, and perseverance.

Value Orientation

Numerous studies have been reported showing a relationship between n achievement and the values of a culture. McClelland and Friedman (1952) examined the folk-tale of the North American Indian. They found that n achievement was related to early independent training and the strength of the sanctions which were used to bring this about. Barry, Bacon, and Child (1957) using the Yale Cross-

Cultural Survey Files compared child-rearing practices of several cultures. They found that boys receive achievement training while girls are taught obedience and responsibility training.

Strodtbeck compared third-generation Italian and Jewish boys. He reports that the Jewish boys are taught to place a higher emphasis upon occupational and educational aspirations than are the Italian boys. The Jewish parents also place higher value upon individual endeavors as compared to collective endeavors.

Rosen (1959) obtained interviews from mothers of several subcultures as to their values and aspirations for their sons' educational and vocational achievement. He reports a significant difference in achievement orientation among the subculture and indicates that this fact may be related to social mobility. Social class also had a bearing upon the aspirational level of the mothers. The lower class mothers appeared to have lower aspirations.

The foregoing studies have all been reported from the United States. Downey (1960) compared Canadians and Americans on the purpose of school and the value system adhered to. He reports:

. . . Canadians appeared to believe, more emphatically than did Americans, that the public school should serve the individual; Americans believed, on the other hand, that it should serve society. Canadians, as a

group, (namely Albertans) assigned considerably higher priority than did Americans to knowledge, scholarly attitudes, creative skills, aesthetic appreciation, and morality as outcomes of schooling. Americans emphasized physical development, citizenship, patriotism, social skills, and family living much more than did Canadians. The former attitudes may be attributable to a value orientation emphasizing the perfection of the individual, the latter to a value orientation emphasizing the improvement and well-being of society. (pp. 197-198) (Table I).

The emphasis of scholastic achievement through competition and individual endeavor has been further shown by Andrews (1959).

In general, it may be concluded that the task of most importance both in practice in the schools and as desired by all groups studied are what might be described as basic intellectual tasks. These are clearly predominant over personal, social, societal, aesthetic, and vocational tasks.

The emphasis upon intellectual tasks is further emphasized in a statement by the Royal Commission (1959).

1. To develop the communication skills-- speaking, listening, reading, writing, and the act of expressing ideas clearly through composition.
2. To develop understanding and mastery of the basic computational skills and application of arithmetical processes.
3. To develop knowledge, skills, and appreciation regarding that part of the cultural heritage selected for inclusion in the curriculum--for the sake of the individual, for the purposes of continuing education, and to prepare for employment and contribution to society.

Table II which is the result of a report entitled Public and Professional Opinion Regarding the Tasks of Alberta

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CANADIAN AND
AMERICAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE TASK OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS^{*}

High School			
<u>Favored by Canadians</u>		<u>Favored by Americans</u>	
Creativity	a	World Citizenship	a
Desire for Knowledge	a	Patriotism	c
Aesthetic	a	Physical	a
World Citizenship	b	Man to Fellow Man	b
Consumer	a		
Elementary School			
<u>Favored by Canadians</u>		<u>Favored by Americans</u>	
Desire for Knowledge	a	Patriotism	c
Ethical	b	Physical	a
Aesthetic	b	Home and Family	a
Consumer	b		

a = Educators only b = Non-Educators c = Both

^{*}Data from Downey, 1960, p. 198.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF PRESENT SCHOOL PRACTICE WITH PUBLIC OPINION
IN ALBERTA REGARDING THE ORDER OF IMPORTANCE
OF THE TASKS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL^{*}

Tasks of the High School	Present School	Public
	Practice	Opinion in Alberta
	<u>Rank</u>	<u>Rank</u>
35 A continuing desire for knowledge--the inquiring mind	1	2
33 Efficient use of the 3 R's --the basic tools for acquiring and communicating knowledge	2	1
34 The habit of weighing facts and imaginatively applying them to the solution of the problems	3	3

^{*} Data from Andrews, 1959, p. 328.

Table 1

Summary of the results of the analysis of variance for the different factors of the experiment. The values are given in the form of the F-ratio and the corresponding probability of significance.

Source of variation		Sum of squares		Degrees of freedom		F-ratio		Probability of significance	
Between groups		Within groups		Total					
Factor		Error		Grand total					
Treatment		Replication		Total					
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Schools (1959) gives additional emphasis to the value of intellectual pursuits.

In addition to these statistics and reports, it appears that most school systems have internal methods of honoring the "good students." Some schools have a special "Awards Night" at which trophies, letters of recognition, and honorable mentions are given. This usually takes place in front of the student body and interested adults. Then, too, A "Governor-General's Medal" is presented to students who show outstanding promise of scholastic achievement. Also, the writer has observed that some schools have a system of evaluating individual student progress as measured against ability. Those students who appear to be working at a level above what would normally be expected are given special recognition in the form of a letter of praise to the parents.

Finally, another indirect method of recognizing scholastic achievement is in the prerequisites for holding office in the student clubs or organizations. Before a nomination paper is completed, the student's record must be checked, and if his academic record is not satisfactory, he is not permitted to accept the nomination.

The significance of these recognition measures are difficult to evaluate, in respect of motivation. They are designed to motivate many students.

Social Strata

It is commonplace to note that our American class system is primarily defined by achievement performances. Two of the most common factors used in establishing social class status are occupational position and father's education. Consequently, intellectual ability is often a prerequisite for attaining symbols of social status, such as education, vocational success, and the acquisition of prestigious material possessions. The widespread ramifications of social status have been extensively explored. Representative studies of those areas particularly relevant to this investigation are summarized here.

Conrad and Jones (1940) reported a significant positive correlation between the intelligence of parents and their offspring. Therefore, children from higher social status parents should be intellectually superior to peers coming from the lower class.

Douven (1956) compared social status and success striving. She reported a relationship between child rearing and development of internalized controls and achievement motivation. The study consisted of two success-failure situations which differ in reward potential, one a monetary reward--the other an abstract reward. The results indicate that the lower class individual puts more stress upon the immediate reward.

As an explanation of these results, Douven says that the low class is familiar with non-personal causality and the effect of external lay-off on individual goal attainment. Success and failure are less personalized so there is little need to strive unless success involves some meaningful and apparent reward.

Kahl (NSSE, 1963) makes the following observation with reference to social class and vocational status of the father and children's achievement performances.

. . . fathers' occupations did not effect school performance in the earlier grades, but it began to take effect in the fourth grade, and by the time of junior high school, was slightly more important than the child's I.Q. in predicting children's academic performance. (pp. 425).

Several recent studies (NSSE, 1964, pp. 425) have been concerned with achievement aspirations, expectations, and standards. The results seem consistent in that adults such as parents and teachers, expect middle and high class children to do well in school, thus leading to a high-status vocation, whereas these same adults do not expect lower class students to do well.

Parental Influence

Since parents are the primary transmitters of cultural values which effect attitudes and behavior, it seems relevant to consider their influence upon achievement.

Parent's own personality is effective in transmitting values and attitudes. Crandall (1963) indicates that the more the parents emphasize intellectual competence for themselves, the more likely they are to instill similar emphasis in their children.

McClelland (1953) reports significant correlation between parental affection or rejection and the achievement in their children. College students who rated their parents, and particularly their fathers as rejectant had high achievement scores. High school boys with high achievement rated their fathers as less rejectant.

Winterbottom (Atkinson, 1953) investigated the effect that independence training had on children's achievement motivation. The results indicate that strong achievement was related to mothers who stressed earlier evidence of self-reliant behavior and gave intense rewards for evidence of success.

Rosen (1959) reports that under semi-experimental situations, boys with high achievement had parents who held higher aspirations and expectations for their son's performance than parents with lower achievement. The former parents also set higher standards for their sons.

In another study of boys in Brazil, Rosen (1962) found that the remarkable low achievement was related to indulgence, over-protectiveness and authoritarianism.

In contrasting this culture with ours, he indicates that the high n achievement is related to (a) achievement training, (b) independence training, (c) self-reliance and (d) autonomy in problem-solving.

McClelland (1953) records the results of a study of parental image as perceived by sons and a psychiatrist. They were to rate their parents on Democratic-Autocratic, Acceptance-Rejection, Indulgence, and Casualness. The results are in Table III.

Perceived severity in upbringing correlates with college students who have a high n achievement. The highest correlation (.49) is for the rejection of the son by the father. Another aspect of the same study was to discover the perceived qualities of the parents as rated by their sons. The "Friendly-Helpful" quality rated negatively with n achievement. One might postulate that since n achievement development is closely related to independence training, the subjects might perceive getting help as being undesirable, thus refusing to rate their fathers as being helpful and friendly.

The authoritarian parent who was characterized as being domineering and selfish was unrelated to n achievement.

Mischell (1961) reports that factor analysis of the achievement motivation construct yields the following factors:

TABLE III
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN N ACHIEVEMENT SCORE AND PARENT
BEHAVIOR VARIABLES AS RATED BY SONS
AND BY A PSYCHIATRIST^{*}

	(N = 30)			
	Rating by Sons		Rating by Psychiatrist	
	Father	Mother	Both Combined	Parents Combined
Democratic-Autocratic	.10	-.03	.03	.18
Acceptance-Rejection	.49	.33	.48	.33
Indulgence	-.26	-.11	-.21	-.23
Casual-Consistent	-	-	-	.22
No Casualness- Extreme Casualness	.12	.30	.23	-
Combined Severity	-	-	.40 [*]	.40 ^{**}

Correlations of .36 and .46 are significant at the 5 per cent level and 1 per cent level of confidence respectively.

^{*}Autocratic, Rejectant, Non-Indulgent, Extreme Casualness (Neglect)

^{**}Autocratic, Rejectant, Non-Indulgent, Extreme Consistency (Rigidity)

^{*}Data from McClland, 1953, p. 279.

1. Academic Motivation and Efficiency
2. Self-Satisfaction
3. Wish Fulfillment Motivation
4. Non-Academic Achievement Motivation
5. External Pressure to Achieve
6. Imputed Generalized Motivation without Attendant Effort
7. Residual or Effort Factor

Interestingly the T.A.T. loaded the lowest on all these factors--all negative loadings. One postulate for this negative loading may, in fact, be the discrepancy between actual achievement motivation and perceived achievement motivation. (McClelland, 1953).

The discrepancies reported in the research could lead to questioning the whole theoretical concept of n achievement. McClelland (1953) indicates that motivational states and environmental circumstance can effect n achievement.

Thus, for instance, it could be argued that if you were trying to predict excellence of performance when achievement cues are present (eg. under pressure), then the difference in n Achievement scores between Neutral and Achievement-oriented conditions might be the best measure of sensitivity to the demands of the situation. If, on the other hand you wanted to predict who would be most apt to work hard when cues did not demand it, then the n Achievement score obtained under Neutral conditions might be best. It is even possible that educational institutions differ in the amount of "pressure" or emphasis that is put on academic achievement. Consequently, the n Achievement score one would use for predicting grades in a particular institution would be a function of whether it was a

"low pressure" or "high pressure" institution, since it is reasonable to expect that different people would get good grades in both places. (pp. 240)

It would appear from the related research in achievement and from the findings of Downey (1959) that the achievement construct does have predictive power for a population of Albertans.

Aspiration Level

A recurring theme in the literature emphasizes the widespread acceptance of the "success" imperative in American society. Upward mobility is not only possible but something to be sought actively. Accompanying upward mobility are the associated rewards which for some become ends in themselves. What are the factors which differentiate individuals with high aspirations from those with lower aspirational levels?

One factor reoccurring in the literature is unsatisfactory interpersonal relations in the family. This factor was found to be significantly related to high aspirational levels, and satisfactory relationships were related to lower aspirational levels. (Dynes, Clark, and Dintz, 1956). They offer as an explanation to this finding the possibility of the unsatisfactory conditions creating in the individual the need to get away from this situation--thus rising above and beyond it--hence the high aspirational level.

Diggory and Morlock (1964) studied the factors which

tended to affect the level of aspiration. They suggest that the mean level of aspiration is affected by the same independent variables which affect mean level of probability of success. They differ in a person's motivation level. People who believe that they are working for a successful performance have a higher overall level of aspiration and a lower overall probability of success than those who feel that the results are trivial. This indicates that while the level of aspiration increases, probability of success generally declines.

Numerous research studies have concentrated on the relationship between social class and level of aspiration. Empey (1956) quotes Hollingshead as stating that lower class people have limited their horizons to the class horizon and in the process have placed themselves in a position to occupy the same status level of their parents. Knipper (1953) concluded that lower status individuals hold low level of aspirations "to make life tolerable," a fact which in some cases is a "sign of apathy" and acceptance of defeat rather than of adjustment to reality. ". . . middle class have their strivers and strainers while lower class have little or no ambitions."

Swinehart (1963) postulates that the level of aspiration is closely related to the process of socialization. He attributes to the maternal role the responsibility of socializing through the processes of child-rearing practices. He

reports that different socio-economic statuses emphasize different objectives in child rearing. Middle class mothers were more concerned about their effectiveness than either the higher class or lower class. Also, he found that upward aspiring lower class mothers tended to be less concerned about adequacy of child-rearing.

Roper (reported in Stein and Cloward) records the result of comparing white and Negro college students level of aspiration. (1959)

Among the white college subjects, achievement of their aspiration in the task was followed by raising of the aspiration level on the next trial; whereas for the matched Negro college group past success on the task was less likely to result in their raising their goal in the next trial. (pp. 325)

Because this was the only experiment of this nature (comparing cross cultures), caution must be exercised when making conclusions about the aspiration level of non-whites.

Hyman (Stein and Cloward, 1959) discusses the findings which demonstrate that the individual in lowly position sets his strivings and expectancies for success in the light of the established social hierarchy of groups and believes that different opportunities exist within the hierarchy.

Conceivably our data might be interpreted to indicate that the person really wants to achieve the goal of great success, but that he had merely accommodated himself to his lesser opportunities and reduced his aspirations so as to guard against frustration and failure. Yet, the fact that the data for the

sample of youth parallel so closely the findings of an adult suggests that this explanation is not really tenable. Such a dynamic readjustment of goals in relation to reality would be expected to come later. Youth seem to have internalized differentiated goals dependent in their class at an age too early to represent a kind of secondary resetting of their sights. (p. 327).

It has also been argued that parents have adjusted themselves to reality but hold high aspirations for their children, largely because of cultural emphasis upon success. If this were the case, one would expect the youth to reflect this pattern of indoctrination. They seem, however, to reflect the pattern of aspiration of the adult members of their class.

Dockrell (1965) in a paper entitled Motivation for Learning reports from a study of the relationship between aspiration level (Rosen scale) and achievement (T.A.T.) profiles. In the active-passive factor, active orientation associated with high achievers and passive orientation associated with low achievers. This was true for the parent sample, the youth sample, and also the parent's perception of youth. The present-future scale revealed no association between high marks and future orientation for girls. The boys with medium marks indicated a future orientation, but boys with high marks showed medium future orientation.

There does seem to be a certain amount of consistency

between the way parents and their children are orientated on these dimensions. Consequently, for this thesis the parents of both the control and experimental sample were interviewed--the Rosen scale being the extent of the interview.

CHAPTER III

ORIENTATION AND PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical assumption to this study lies in the concept of alienation and anomie (anomy). This concept has entered into modern sociology from German idealistic philosophy, more particularly the Young Hegelians (Coser and Rosenberg, 1964). Although alienation has been largely developed in the field of sociology, it does have a place also in psychological theory. The distinction becomes quite evident in the following definitions (Seeman in Coser and Rosenberg, 1964).

Anomie means a condition of normlessness, a moral vacuum, the suspension of rules, a state sometimes referred to as de-regulation. Anomie presupposes a prior condition in which behavior is normatively determined. (pp. 510)

Merton (1957) gives a psychologically orientated definition.

Anomy is a state of mind in which the individual's sense of social cohesion --the mainspring of the morale--is broken or fatally weakened. (pp. 487)

Although these two definitions are oriented toward different disciplines, they both bear out the concept of a specific change taking place among individuals to a state

of the 'unattached', the 'normless' and the 'isolated'.

The relationship of this theory to the present study is significant. The purpose of the study as set out in Chapter I was to see if after assuming that recipients of social assistance perceive themselves as being unattached, normless, and isolated; this does, in fact, produce certain trends in achievement, need achievement, value orientation, and level of aspirations in their children.

The theoretical framework then proceeds to indicate how, in our society, alienation may take place for the recipients of social assistance.

MARX

Alienation as previewed by Marx was on the realm of labor. He made reference to the alienation of man from himself and from nature. He spoke of the alienation of labor which included man becoming alienated from his work to the extent of not having fulfilled himself in his work. The worker denies himself, has a feeling of misery, and eventually becomes physically and mentally exhausted.

The only connection which they still have with the productive forces and with their own existence, labor, has

lost for them any semblance of personal activity and sustains their life only while stunting it. (p. 525).

SEEMAN

Seeman (Coser and Rosenberg, 1964) describes alienation by making reference to the terminology employed in the social sciences namely unattached, marginal, obsessive, and isolated. To illustrate, he cites four types of alienation.

Powerlessness refers to man's expectancy held that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes or reinforcements. Although Seeman indicates that this does not usually refer to a condition in life, it should be handled like any other situational aspect of behavior. Powerlessness is an effective method of alienation to those who believe in it.

Meaninglessness, as reported by Seeman refers to the individual's sense of understanding of the events in which he is engaged. Alienation occurs when the individual is uncertain as to what he should believe. This variation of alienation is described by Mannhiem.

Mannhiem argues: That as society increasingly organizes its members with reference to the most efficient realization of ends (that is as functional rationality increases), there is a parallel diction in the "capacity to act intelligently in a given situation on the basis of one's own insight into the interrelation of events." (Coser and Rosenberg, 1964), p. 529.

Normlessness, as defined by Seeman, makes reference to the fact that culturally prescribed goals are not congruent with the means for their attainment. In such a situation he argues, anomie or normlessness will develop to the extent that the technically most effective procedure, whether culturally legitimate or not, becomes typically preferred to institutionally prescribed conduct.

Isolation refers usually to the description of the intellectual role, (writers, and so on). It does not refer to a lack of social adjustment. Isolated people usually assign low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in the given society.

MERTON

Merton's theory of anomie holds that a breakdown in society occurs largely because of a disjunction between cultural norms and goals and the socially-structured capacities of members of the group to act in accord with them. He indicates that anomie varies in kind and degree. (1957)

The degree of anomie is either simple or acute:

Simple anomie refers to the state of confusion in a group or society which is subject to conflict between value-systems resulting in some degree of uneasiness and sense of separation from the group; acute anomie is the deterioration and, at the extreme, the disintegration of values, systems which result in marked anxieties. (pp. 165)

With respect to signs or indicators of anomie, Merton (1957) has cited five:

1. the perception that community-leaders are indifferent to one's needs;
2. the perception that little can be accomplished in the society which is seen as basically unpredictable and lacking order.
3. the perception that life-goals are receding rather than being realized.
4. the sense of futility,
5. the conviction that one cannot count on personal associates for social and psychological support. (pp. 164-165)

Merton has described several adaptation techniques to the disjunction between goals and norms. They are conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism, and rebellion. These adaptations are directly connected to the delinquents or illegitimate method of attaining the goals. It is impossible to associate the receiving of social assistance with delinquency or illegitimate methods. Consequently, Merton has indicated that other forms of departure from regular norms may have nothing to do with violating the established rules of the land. In this connection, there is another type of adaptation namely Social isolation. This refers to a feeling of separation from the groups or of isolation from group standards. Cloward and Ohlson (1961) further explain this by referring to people who blame the social structure for their failures. They tend to criticize the system and often

dissociate themselves from it. In this way, they are alienating themselves from the social norms. Apathy is another form of this type of alienation. Dean (1961) indicates that apathy is characteristic of individuals who are not able to comply with or alter the goals of society.

Merton's greatest contribution to the theory of alienation and isolation is the essay in which he illustrates the emphasis on the great American theme--namely, "The Success Theme in American Culture" (Stein and Cloward, 1959). This emphasis is on monetary success as one dominant theme in American culture and the strain and stress experienced by the unfortunates who are found to withdraw or use illegitimate methods of adhering to the theme.

The theory holds that any extreme emphasis upon achievement whether this be scientific productivity, accumulation of personal wealth or by a small stretch of the imagination the conquest of the Don Juan--will attenuate conformity to the institutional norms governing behavior designed to achieve the particular form of success especially among those who are socially disadvantaged in the competitive race. It is the conflict between cultural goals and the availability of using institutional means--whatever the character of the goal--which produces a strain toward anomie.
(pp. 541)

The examination of this success-theme automatically opens up the area of values. Robin Williams (Stein and Cloward, 1959) has established qualities which are inherent in values. "(1) They have a conceptual element--they are more than pure sensation, emotions, reflexes, or so-called

needs. Values are abstractions drawn from the flux of the individual's immediate experience. (2) They are affectively charged; they represent actual or potential emotional mobilization. (3) Values are not the concrete goals of action but rather the criteria by which goals are chosen. (4) Values are important, not trivial or of slight concern." (pp. 288)

Values then become "things" which people treasure, feel they need, desire to become. Values give direction to conduct, making it meaningful and effective. They are principles that guide human action. Then too, they possess a tenacious strength by which individuals feel obliged to adhere to them, almost worship and still enjoy.

AMERICAN VALUES

According to the above qualities, it appears necessary to examine the areas of emphasis which are entailed in the success-theme. The areas to be discussed include; (1) equal opportunity for all: (2) emphasis upon money, (3) humanitarian mores, (4) accent upon activity and work, (5) practicality and efficiency element, and (6) unacceptability of the person who is passive as compared to active.

The American culture is a society which places a high premium on economic affluence and social ascent for all its members regardless of their position or apparent opportunities, regardless of their innate ability or their inheritance.

It is, therefore, a socially defined expectation.

(Merton in Stein and Cloward, 1959)

The road to fortune, like the public turnpike is open alike to all children of the beggar, and the descendant of kings. There are tolls to be paid by all, yet all have rights and it only remains for us to avail ourselves of these. (pp. 541)

The concept of equality is upheld in nearly all aspects of life. In religion, we believe in the equality of souls before God. In social relations, we believe in equality rather than the hierarchy. But, in the striving for goals and standard of conduct, the concept of equality is even more apparent. The principles of economic freedom and individual achievement have strongly dominated the concept of equality. The emphasis has been on equality of opportunity not equality of condition. (William. 1959).

The value of money in our society is also unquestionable. Money has been given the status of not only fulfilling our basic needs, but also the status of purchasing power, freedom, and prestige. These are also qualities that individuals desire. Merton (1957) refers to money as "object par excellence."

Santayana (Williams, 1959) gives a clear picture of the position of money in our society. He refers to it as the "symbol and measure he has at hand for success, intelligence, and power." Assuming Santayana is correct, this means that money has the power to award success and also personal worth.

The humanitarian more is also valued by individuals. The aspect of helping the "underdog" is very prominent. Thus, we have well established organizations such as Community Chest, the services clubs, and public welfare agencies. The humanitarian value, however, clashes with the stronger emphasis on rugged individualism. Added to this are the stronger overtones of our present moral orientation, whereby the typical individual thinks in terms of good or bad, right or wrong, ethical or unethical.

The accent upon activity and work in which secular occupational activity and successful work became a sign of grace has been transmitted through successive generations to present day. The cliché "he who does not work shall not eat" placed the emphasis on work for survival. Our history of frontier experience, ceaseless change, vast opportunity, and fluid structure reinforces the value of work.

The emphasis upon work includes the mutual reinforcement of self-interest, social recognition, and ethical and religious precepts. (Williams, 1959). "The value of work has been incorporated into the ego ideal of the representative personality type of the culture and often approaches the intensity of a true matter of conscience."

Work is thus the avenue to progress, development of self, social recognition, and personal worth: "Men universally seek the approval of some of their fellows and therefore

try to be successful by some shared standard of achievement." (Williams, 1959).

Efficiency and practicality are often measures of the worth of an individual. The judgment is made in terms of progress or the lack of it, in terms of adding to our economy or inefficiently being parasitic of it. "In this climate there is a high sensitivity to such epithets as 'backward', 'inefficient', 'useless'. (Williams, 1959).

Practicality in respect to goals of action has been valued in respect to life-models within the culture. In its broad sense this includes rational, strenuous, competitive striving for personal validation through occupational success.

"American culture is organized around the attempts at active mastery rather than passive acceptance." (Williams, 1959, p. 341). This points to the activistic, rational, and secular emphasis of our culture and hints at the dissipation of the contents of immediate gratification of interests and satisfactions.

It follows that there are in our society two groups of people, those who have accepted the goals of society and live successfully according to its values and those who have not been successful in supporting themselves and their families and consequently are passive recipients of social welfare money. This little group will exhibit all the qualities of the alienated.

. . . for he who fails has only himself to blame, for the corollary to the concept of the self-made man is the self-unmade man. (Williams, 1959, p. 542).

The "self-unmade man" is thus forced to accept the position "that man does not experience himself as the acting agent in his group of the world . . ." (Marx in Coser and Rosenberg, 1964). In these circumstances, "a painful social crisis upsets the equilibrium, disturbs large numbers of people . . . and produces widespread anomie" (Seeman, in Coser and Rosenberg, 1964, p. 519). The alienated person becomes, "unattached, the marginal, the obsessive, the normless, and the isolated individual. To be self-alienated, in the final analysis, means to be something less than one might ideally be if the circumstances in society were otherwise . . ." (Merton, 1964, p. 535).

All these quotations imply a previously better condition, a condition where the individual was the active agent promoting self-development and participating in the goals of society. Though one must be careful not to make the assumption that everyone in the society has accepted the goals of the society, Merton (1957) makes it clear that the individuals of the lower class of society in "substantial numbers" have accepted the primary goals of the society in which they live.

The sample under study is from homes where parents would be expected to have the characteristics of the

alienated or isolated man. They have abjured the major goals of their society and have accepted the situation of "passive acceptance."

If these parents are in fact alienated or isolated from society because of not fulfilling the success requirements in a success-theme, it is possible to derive certain postulates about what effect this should have upon their children. It could be assumed that the children would also be alienated but this need not necessarily be so. It could be that the children are well integrated to a set of values and aspirations below those of children of non-alienated parents. Thus the lower set of values and aspirations can be looked upon as an indirect result of alienation.

POSTULATE I

Persons in this welfare sample would tend to have lower achievement, value orientation, level of aspiration, and academic achievement than the matched sample who are cognizant of the goals and are actively participating.

POSTULATE II

Since values are assimilated largely in the home situation, (Merton, 1957) both samples would likely portray the values of their respective homes.

POSTULATE III

Parents of the welfare sample would tend to have a

lower value orientation than the parents of the non-alienated sample.

HYPOTHESIS

1. The welfare sample will tend to have a lower achievement score than the control group.
2. The value orientation for the welfare group will tend to be lower than that of the control group.
3. The welfare group will have a lower school achievement than the control group.
4. The aspiration level of the welfare group will tend to be lower than that of the control group.
5. The parents of the welfare group will tend to have a lower value orientation than that of the parents of the control group.
6. There should be a significant correlation between the value orientation of the individual subject and that of his parent.

DEFINITIONS

Academic Achievement: a composite score derived from six grade seven areas as evaluated by teachers.

Academic Ability: the recorded intelligence quotient based upon standardized tests, prescribed by the Edmonton Separate School Board.

Achievement Motivation: will be defined in

McClelland's definition.

Aspiration Level: will be defined in Rosen's Scale.

Value Orientation: will be defined in Rosen's Scale.

Welfare Children: will be defined as those children living with their parents who are in receipt of social assistance or social allowance deemed necessary by the Provincial or City Welfare.

Lower Class: defined by the areas of the city in which they live. (Urban Renewal Study, 1964) Appendix A.

SAMPLE

The welfare sample was identified from existing data, which studied all the grade seven students in the Edmonton Separate Schools. From this study it was possible to select all the students who were recipients of welfare. The majority of these welfare students live in the lower socio-economic sections of the city. Because in this study it was necessary to match each welfare student with another student of lower socio-economic status, the welfare students located in the middle and high socio-economic sections of the city were not included in the study.

Each welfare student was matched with another student of lower socio-economic status in the same school. The two sample were matched on the following factors; grade, intelligence quotient, religion, sex, ethnic background, socio-economic level and living with their own parent(s).

The original sample size was thirty-five welfare and thirty-five non-welfare. This was reduced because three students were boarding and one was staying in a dormitory. This left the sample size of thirty-one welfare matched with thirty-one non-welfare.

STATISTICAL PROCEDURES

The raw data were collected, tabulated, and placed on IBM cards. These cards were placed with the computer programs T-100 and SR-1000. The operations called for were tests of significance and correlations. The IBM 7040 computer performed the operations.

The difference between the means was tested by "t" test suggested in Ferguson (1959).

The confidence level required to accept the difference between means as being statistically significant was the .05 level.

LIMITATIONS

The first limitation is with respect to sample size. The writer experienced much difficulty in obtaining the welfare sample. The Provincial Welfare and the Edmonton Separate School System honor the privacy of welfare recipients and consequently refused to release names of welfare people. The sample therefore was taken from a previous study of all grade seven students.

Secondly, the number of parents who refused to answer and the number of parents who could not be reached because of change in residence reduced the parent sample to fifty-two.

INSTRUMENTS

Thematic Apperception Test

One of the most active researchers in the area of motivation has been McClelland. He has employed the Thematic Apperception Test, designed by Murray, in order to measure motivation. In one of his early works (1951), he discusses the effect of increased motive intensity on thought processes. This concept consists of three stages; (1) wish fulfillment, (2) push toward reality, and (3) defence. The difficulty with this concept lies in its difficulty in distinguishing the types of need, the context in which the need occurs, and the kind of person involved. Consequently, its application to the achievement is questionable.

The framework from which this work is derived is (1) psychoanalysis and (2) projective measurements. H. A. Murray (1938), author of the TAT, indicates in his developments of the need theory that motivation may have an effect upon fantasy. He also notes from studies on animal motivation that motives can be aroused by appropriate conditions, and that the degree of arousal can be varied by altering

the conditions of arousal.

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) have defined a motive as follows:

A motive is the redintegration by a cue of a change in an affective situation.
(pp. 28)

They indicate that redintegration refers to previous learning, In this concept all motives are learned. The basic idea is this:

Certain stimuli or situations involving discrepancies between expectations (adaptation level) and perceptions are sources of primary unlearned affect, either positive or negative in nature. Cues which are paired with these affective states, and the conditions producing them become capable of redintegrating a state (A') derived from the original affective situation (A), but not identical with it.
(McClelland et al, 1953, p. 28)

These redintegrated states might be called appetite and anxiety which are not identical to the primary affective situation but are based upon it.

In considering need achievement, it becomes necessary to define need, H. A. Murray's (1938) definition follows:

A need is a construct (a convention fiction or hypothetical concept) which stands for force (the physico-chemical nature of which is unknown) in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, intellection, conation, and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing unsatisfying situation. (pp. 123-124)

The definition of n Achievement as given by E. J. Murray

(1964) is as follows:

To accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate, or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas. To do this as rapidly and as independently as possible. To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel oneself. To rival and surpass others. To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent. (pp. 85)

In the Thematic Apperception Test Manual, H. A. Murray (1943) uses phrases such as: work at something important, energy and persistence, strive to accomplish, get ahead, to persuade, to create, ambition manifested in action to define an Achievement. These definitions concur very closely with McClelland's concept of striving in terms of a standard of excellence.

The dominance of a theme in a person's conversation, fantasies, and dreams suggest certain underlying motives. McClelland et al (1953) indicate that the appearance of achievement fantasy in a story is a function of three variables; (1) cues in the environment and in the relatively autonomous thought processes of the individual, (2) specific cues which are introduced and (3) cues in a picture which are controlled. The operating factors thus appear to be the sum total of a person and his experiences, task required by the experiment, and the stimulating cues in the picture for the particular need under study.

McClelland's procedure controls the cues eliciting the achievement motive which are found in the background

and the figures of the picture. His procedure also includes a standard set of pictures given under neutral instructions. Consequently, the variations in response and also the manifest strengths and weaknesses of these responses are the function of the first variable--namely the sum total of a person and his experiences. Furthermore, it is suggested that the responses to the stimuli represent the particular response that the individual would produce under a similar real-life situation with respect to achievement striving. The reason why some people who appear highly motivated to achieve do not manifest this under an experimental condition is probably because of conflicting cues or perhaps cultural and moral taboos. These cues and taboos then act as inhibitors for the appearance of the achievement motive. The general thesis of McClelland's concept is that:

. . . if achievement imagery is present in the thematic story one can safely conclude that the subject is motivated to achieve rather than engaging in wish-fulfilment.

Moss and Kagan (Murstein, 1963) conclude that the Achievement as conceived by Murray and McClelland is very complex and that it may be advisable to refer to specific achievement behaviors rather than a global concept of Achievement. Others have also questioned the assumptions made in respect to the theory. McClelland et al (1953) contend that the theory and technique for measuring Achievement are valid.

Reliability

The literature indicates that two types of reliability should be considered with respect to projective measurements. The first type arises because the protocols are scored according to a standardized procedure. Good interjudge scoring has been reported even when one judge was relatively inexperienced. McClelland (1953) reports a reliability score of .95. A reliability score of .96 was achieved by a scorer upon rescoring the same protocols a week later. All the usual cautions were observed so there was no way of identifying a relationship between the writer and his protocol. A review of published research by Feld and Smith (Atkinson, 1958) of researchers using the system of content analysis produced interscore reliabilities of .66, .89, .95, .89, .91, .80, .96, and .82. Even with "novice" scores (12 hours training), a median reliability of .87 was obtained.

Gulliksen (1950) suggests that interscorer reliability be at least .90 and he casts doubt on a test if the reliability coefficient falls below .80.

The answer to obtaining a good reliability score lies in precise and readily obtainable scoring instructions, preferably a standardized set of cards with which scorers can become familiar.

Another type of reliability refers to the consistency

of scores obtained from the same subject at different time intervals. Atkinson (1950), using two sets of three cards each on the basis of their eliciting a high n achievement score, obtained reliability coefficient of .64 and .78. Auld et al (1955) obtained a value of .93 using four cards. Lowell (1950) gave two equivalent forms with a lapse of one week between the two tests. He obtained a correlation of .22. However, the two forms agreed to the extent of 72.5 per cent in placing subjects around the median. Haber and Alpert (Atkinson, 1958) report a test-retest reliability of .54 over a three week interval. These reported results cast some doubt on the stability of n Achievement. McClelland (1953) indicated that the first administration may have spoiled the setting for a second administration; consequently a low reliability resulted. He concludes that the instrument may not be very precise in predicting an individual's n Achievement, but its stability for purposes of group comparisons is fairly well established.

Validity

To establish validity is to establish that McClelland's instrument measures n Achievement. McClelland's (1953) research followed the assumption that the achievement motive could be manipulated experimentally just like other motives such as hunger could be manipulated.

The procedure involved giving achievement-related instructions, the cues in achievement related tasks, and the experiences of success or failure on these tasks induced by manipulating announced norms. This was geared to gain control over the cues which elicit n Achievement.

Relaxed, neutral and achievement-orientated conditions were induced by regulating the achievement-related cues in the instructions. According to the theory, (McClelland et al, 1953) hypothesized that by increasing the achievement-orientated cues along the continuum from the relaxed to achievement-orientated group, the intensity of n Achievement aroused would also increase. The results did confirm the hypothesis. Adding to this the feeling of success (that is, motivation to succeed) or feeling of failure (that is, motivation to avoid failure), it was hypothesized that an increase in frequency for each category would be evidenced. This was also confirmed:

Generally speaking, we are justified in saying that as achievement motivation is experimentally increased, the imaginative stories that subjects write become increasingly more concerned with achievement, anticipation of success and failure, acts instrumental to success and the avoidance of failure, affective states associated with succeeding and failing, blocks in the way of achieving . . . (McClelland, 1953, pp. 145-146)

A threefold argument for the validity of n Achievement measure seems evident. "It can be derived by analysing

the experimental procedures which produce changes in the imaginative responses dealing with n Achievement and further by the relationship established between n Achievement and behavior. The third argument lies in the method of computing n Achievement scores. It is the culmination of an intensive analysis of the stories supplemented by the stories written by persons in other countries."

The foregoing makes it seem probable that the TAT is, in fact, measuring n Achievement. Evidence is also available indicating the fact that to fake would be almost impossible under the present procedures (McClelland, 1943). Murray (1943) also gives conclusive evidence to refute the idea that the TAT is loaded on social desirability.

High School Studies

Although the theory and procedure underlying the TAT was developed using a college sample, studies have been reported using it successfully on high school samples. McClelland has also asserted that it can be used with high school students.

Thus we may conclude that the method of obtaining an n Achievement score which was originally developed on a population of male college students is valid when applied to experimentally induced changes in motivation in a population of younger male subjects representing a broader socioeconomic base. (McClelland, 1958, pp. 167)

Reliability of Scoring the TAT

The method of scoring, as established by Atkinson (1960), was studied and practised before scoring was attempted. Prior to scoring this set of protocols, the writer was involved in scoring protocols, for four other projects. This meant that the writer had scored approximately one thousand protocols. On one of these projects, the writer's score was compared with the score of another senior graduate student. The spearman rho rank order correlation calculated for the two sets was .91.

Level of Aspiration and Value Orientation Scale

Much emphasis in our culture is placed upon upward mobility, status seeking, and class climbing. Along with this emphasis is the emphasis upon the rewards which accompany upward mobility. This section will deal with the studies of aspiration level and value orientation.

The momentary level of aspiration can be determined (a) by the individual's perception of position on each reference scale which is relevant to his present situation, and (b) by the forces that act upon him in these positions. (Lewin, 1944). Hollingshead (1953) developed an Index of Social Position based upon (a) occupation, (b) education, and (c) ecological area of residence. Each of these factors were assigned a weight determined by a standard regression equation.

On the basis of these definitions, experiments have been performed to discover the effects of success and failure on subsequent tasks in a series, the influence of level of aspiration on an easy or difficult activity, of the knowledge of the standards of one's own group, of comparison with other groups of varying prestige and of habitual success or failure, reward, or non-reward, of frustration within a particular situation, of the effects of the developmental level of the child, and of the generality and consistency of behavior of different individuals.

Stoodley (1962) has clearly distinguished between absolute and relative aspiration level. To measure the absolute standard, the aspirations of lower class seniors were compared with that of higher class seniors, to measure the relative standard each senior's occupational choice was compared with that of his father. The important point here is that not only is the choice of occupation considered, but also the status level from which he comes in considering his desire to get ahead. Stoodley indicates that reality causes lower-strata seniors to reduce their occupational aspiration more than others when faced with choosing between the occupation that they prefer and the one that they anticipate entering.

Several studies have investigated the factors which affect a person's level of aspiration. Lewin (1944) indicates that it is highly dependent upon early training.

Dynes, Clarke, Dinitz (1959) report:

Much of the psychoanalytic literature has suggested that unsatisfactory interpersonal relations in childhood produce insecurity which is translated into neurotic striving for power, recognition, and success.

Adler and Horney (Stoodley, 1962) report that the quest for power is frequently used as compensatory means of attaining reassurance against the anxieties produced by an unhappy childhood.

Gould (1962), on the other hand, theorized that

perception of the present circumstances affects the level of aspiration. The more unsatisfactory the present is perceived the more urgent the desire to get away from it.

Rosen (1956) speaks about an Achievement Syndrome. This includes (a) need achievement, (b) value orientation, and (c) level of aspiration. Need Achievement is a personality characteristic which provides the internal impetus to excel. This impetus is displayed in persistent striving activity to attain higher goals. Value Orientation is a culturally defined factor which defines and implements achievement-motivated behavior. It establishes the criteria which influences the person's preferences and goals. The value system also prepares an individual to translate motives into action. Aspiration Level is also a culturally determined factor which organizes and directs behavior toward higher status goals by putting premium on high educational and occupational achievement.

Rosen's scale, which is a modified form of Kluckhohn's scale, consists of a number of questions (Appendix C) which are scored on the following criteria:

1. Activistic-passivistic orientation concerns the extent to which a society or sub-group encourages the individual to believe in the possibility of his manipulating the physical and social environment to his advantage. In an activistic society the individual is encouraged to believe that it is both possible and necessary for him to improve his status; whereas a passivistic-orientation promotes the acceptance of the notion that individual efforts to achieve mobility are relatively futile.

2. Present-future orientation concerns a society's attitude toward time and its impact upon behavior. A present-orientated society stresses the merit of living in the present with an emphasis upon immediate gratification; a future-orientated society urges the individual to believe that planning and present sacrifices are worthwhile, or morally obligatory, in order to insure future gains.
3. Familistic-individualistic orientation concerns the relationship of the individual to his kin. One aspect of this orientation is the importance given to the maintenance of physical proximity to the family of orientation. In a familistically orientated society the individual is not urged, or perhaps not permitted, to acquire independence of family ties. An individualistically-orientated society does not expect the individual to maintain the kinds of affective ties which will impede his mobility. (Rosen, 1965, pp. 207-208)

Rosen (Atkinson, 1958) states "that the achievement motive by itself is not a sufficient cause for upward mobility." The innate capacity must be supplemented by cultural factors which relate to mobility. Furthermore, in order for the achievement motive to lead to culturally defined success behavior, there must be an awareness of and a determined willingness to master the requirements necessary for success. "These requirements include preparedness to plan, to work, and to make sacrifices." Whether or not a person is prepared to work, plan, make sacrifices depends upon how he values success. Rosen (Atkinson, 1958) reports that value

scores and academic achievement were not related, but that the value score was a factor contributing to upward mobility. He also found that an individual value score was related to educational aspiration, but that the motivation score was not. Table IV gives this information.

Consequently, an individual's value orientation can be determined by examining the individual value orientations. Hence, the three orientations, activist-passivistic, present-future, and familistic-individualistic when scored by the standard procedure yields a score which represents a value orientation.

Rosen's conclusion is that:

. . . this study reveals a significant relationship between achievement motivation and grades, and between value and educational aspiration There is a nexus, though of course it is not a perfect one, between educational and vocational achievement in our society. (Tables V and VI.)

Furthermore, since Rosen (1956) indicates that achievement-orientated motives and values are different for the various social classes (the middle class having higher scores than the lower class), it seems reasonable to assume that these differences account for the different rates of social mobility.

Middle class children are more likely to be taught not only to believe in success but also to be willing to take those steps

TABLE IV
SCHOOL ASPIRATION BY VALUE ORIENTATION^{*}

School Aspiration	Value Orientation Score		Achievement Motivation Score	
	H	L	H	L
Aspires to go to college	61	33	51	46
Does not aspire to go to college	39	67	49	54
N	59	61	54	66

$$\chi^2 = 13.3$$

$$P .001$$

$$\chi^2 = 1.2$$

$$P .20$$

^{*}Data from Rosen (1956) p. 209.

TABLE V
VALUE SCORE BY ASPIRATION LEVEL AND SOCIAL CLASS^{*}

Aspiration Level	Social Class				
	I	II	III	IV	V
	Under Aspirers	Other Aspirers	Other Aspirers	Over Aspirers	Other Aspirers
Value Score	%	%	%	%	%
Low	57	23	65	79	
High	43	77	35	21	
N	7	53	17	43	

^{*}Data from Rosen, 1956, p. 209.

TABLE VI
AVERAGE SCHOOL GRADE BY ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION^{*}

Average Grade Score	Achievement Motivation Score		Value Score	
	H	L	H	L
B or Above	69	35	54	46
C or Below	31	65	46	54
Total	54	66	57	61

$\chi^2: 13.5$
P .001

$\chi^2: .833$
P .30

^{*}Data from Rosen, 1956, p. 208.

that make achievement possible; in short, to embrace the achievement value system which states that given the willingness to work hard, plan and make the proper sacrifices, an individual should be able to manipulate his environment so as to ensure eventual success. (pp. 209)

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

RESULTS

The raw data obtained on the TAT, Rosen's Scales, and academic achievement are in Tables VII - XI, Appendix B. The TAT and achievement scores have a constant of 4 added to each. The result of this constant is that the lowest score is now 1.

The results in general seem to support the hypothesis although they are not statistically significant. The differences in the means between the two samples on all the instruments were in the same direction--that is there was a difference, and as predicted, it favored the control sample.

Each hypothesis will be dealt with below.

HYPOTHESIS I

The hypothesis, that the experimental sample would tend to have a lower achievement score than the control group, was tested by a one-tailed "t" test. See Table XIII, Appendix B.

The difference was not statistically significant. However, the mean for the control group was larger than the mean for the experimental group. Consequently, the possibility remains open that there is a tendency for welfare children to have a lower achievement score on a TAT profile.

HYPOTHESIS II

The hypothesis that the experimental sample would have a lower value orientation than the control group was tested by a one-tailed "t" test. See Table X, Appendix B.

As predicted, the non-welfare students scored higher than the welfare students. The difference was statistically significant at the .05 level of significance for the sum total value orientation.

When the individual orientations of the value orientation were considered in isolation, the differences between the two groups on the activistic-passivistic orientation and the familistic-individualistic orientation did not prove to be statistically significant. On the other hand, the difference between the experimental sample and the control sample on the present-future orientation was statistically significant at the .05 level of significance. It seems probable that this orientation contributed the most to make the difference in the total value orientation.

HYPOTHESIS III

The hypothesis that the welfare sample would tend to have a lower aspiration level than the non-welfare was tested by a one-tailed "t" test. Table XIV, Appendix B.

The difference was not statistically significant at the .05 level of significance.

HYPOTHESIS IV

The hypothesis that the experimental group would have a lower academic achievement than the control group was tested by a one-tailed "t" test. Table XI.

The differences between the two groups were not statistically significant at the .05 level of significance. It is worth noting that on every subject area reported the differences were always in the same direction--that is the welfare group obtained the lower mean. The difference in means ranged from 2.39 in Spelling to 5.48 in Literature.

Science and Literature with a "t" of 1.444 and 1.353 respectively, are both statistically significant at the .10 level of significance. The difference in the total mean is also statistically significant at the .10 level of significance.

One would suspect that by using Science and Literature to demonstrate the effects of welfare, a group just a little larger would realize a statistically significant

difference. Spelling produced the smallest "t" at 0.610.

Using the non-parametric sign test, which is a median test, the difference between the two groups was statistically significant at the .05 level of significance.

HYPOTHESIS V

The hypothesis that there would be a significant correlation between the students' response and their parent's response on the value orientation was tested. Table XII, Appendix B.

It was predicted that the responses of the students would be very similar to that of their parents. This, however, was not the case. The highest correlation obtained was on the familistic-individualistic orientation ($r = 0.204$). The lowest correlation ($r = 0.009$) was on the activistic-passivistic orientation. Of all the three orientations the activistic-passivistic accounted for most of the negative correlations. See Table XII, Appendix B.

HYPOTHESIS VI

The hypothesis that the parents of the experimental group would tend to have lower value orientation level than the parents of the control group was tested by a one-tailed "t" test. Table X Appendix B.

Although none of the "t" tests proved to be statistically significant, the differences in the means were all in

favor of the non-welfare group. The activistic-passivistic orientation produced the smallest difference. ($t = 0.105$.)

DISCUSSION

This section will discuss possible reasons why the study did not yield statistically significant results.

In general one could say that the size of the sample was relatively small. The original sample contained seventy students, but since four did not meet the criteria they were eliminated. This left a sample of sixty-two or thirty-one welfare and thirty-one non-welfare.

One factor that deserves consideration is the length of time that the welfare subjects had been recipients of social assistance. If the theory can be accepted, one could predict that the longer the individuals are recipients of social assistance the greater would be the degree of alienation. In the present study, it was impossible to control the experimental sample with respect to the time factor. They had, however, all been receiving assistance for a minimum of ten months. This was established by reference to a list of pupils' names for whom the social welfare had purchased books the previous September.

One more explanation for the lack of statistical results may be in the instruments. Although it has been established that the TAT has reliability and validity, it is possible that it lacks sophistication on small samples

of high school students.

The age of the pupils may also have had a bearing. It is possible that the younger the child the less cognizant he is of the situation. Therefore, one could expect younger children to display less alienation. The time of testing also bears comment. The testing was done in June at the time when they had been having several tests. It is possible that another test seemed just too much for all of the students-- thus lack of motivation.

Academic Achievement

One could argue that because the June final examinations were not standardized that the results would be contaminated. It is extremely difficult to support this argument in light of the fact that the matched pairs in every case had the same room and same teachers. This leaves the human factor uncontrolled, but there seems to be no reason why teachers should discriminate between the welfare and non-welfare students because often teachers are not even aware of the students who are on welfare.

The "t" of 1.444 (Science) is rather interesting. One could suggest that in a society where progress in scientific research and development is highly emphasized, an alienated group may possibly not be as involved in the emphasis as would a non-alienated group.

N Achievement

One consideration is the extent to which these two groups were matched. Because they were matched on many factors, one could suggest that in most respects it was a homogeneous group. The only real difference between the two groups was on the welfare-non-welfare variable.

A number of studies have been reported where the TAT was weak in supporting academic achievement. It is possible that the TAT may be measuring one type of need achievement, but perhaps not in the academic area--particularly with subjects who are still within compulsory school age.

Value Orientation

Since the value orientation as a total measure was statistically significant, it would be safe to say that the welfare child tended to believe to a greater extent than the non-welfare child that; in Rosen's words (1956, pp. 203-11)

— society promotes the acceptance of the notion that individual efforts to achieve mobility are relatively futile.

— society stresses the merit of living in the present with an emphasis upon immediate gratification.

— in society the individual is not urged or perhaps not permitted to acquire independence of family ties.

The activistic-passivistic orientation has the lowest "t" score ($t = 0.105$). This would indicate that this particular orientation may be fairly stable throughout the lower

social strata. Possibly a lower class people have a tendency to feel that individual efforts are largely futile.

A comparison between the students and the parents on the value orientation indicates a difference in the order of the size of "t".

<u>Students</u>	<u>"t"</u>
Present-future	1.979
Activistic-passivistic	1.232
Familistic-individualistic	0.991

<u>Parents</u>	<u>"t"</u>
Familistic-individualistic	0.572
Present-future	0.497
Activistic-passivistic	0.105

In light of the theory of alienation, it would appear that for students the present-future value orientation is the best discriminator and the familistic-individualistic is the poorest.

Parent Interviews

The parent interviews were difficult to obtain. Some parents flatly refused to answer any questions. Other parents said that they had no opinions, consequently their opinions had to be derived from a discussion.

The writer frankly admits that the parent interviewing was an extremely threatening situation. Some interviews resulted in the interviewer being the object of attack for all the ills

of the university as a whole, and sometimes even for all the ills of our society. Other interviews ended in the interviewer being the sole recipient of an emotional lecture on teen-agers, governments, government policy, police force, and taxation policy. On the other hand, some interviews were very interesting and friendly. These tended to end on a note of optimism that this study would come up with some concrete and conclusive answers to the teen-age problem.

The lack of correlation between students' responses and their parents' responses is probably related to the absolute-relative aspiration. Hyman (Stein and Cloward, 1957) indicates, however, that although the members of the lower strata may be cognizant of the primary values and goals of the society, and cognizant of their particular positions and contribution to the overall purpose, they may have adopted different goals and objectives for themselves, but are nevertheless trying to instill within their progeny the goals of society. This would lead to cognitive dissonance and probably the final result would be adherence to the values practised not verbalized.

Although this discussion does not compensate for the lack of statistically significant results, one must bear in mind that this study was largely a clinical study as well as a statistical study. Many clinical observations cannot be quantified. It does appear from the clinical standpoint, that

some notions and hypotheses regarding alienation and social welfare are supported in this study. This study also points up some implications (Chapter VI) that are pertinent to clinical psychology.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is a summary of the thesis including the problem, theory, instruments, hypotheses, and findings.

Problem

It has generally been recognized by teachers and educators that welfare students in the school systems appear to be experiencing learning problems. It was felt that this could be closely related to the fact that they are being supported by public funds (taxation). To pursue this problem, the theory of alienation was investigated and appeared readily applicable as a plausible explanation. If welfare recipients are alienated, it would seem that alienation would be detected in the children and particularly in their school performance. In order for any material to be meaningful, the welfare sample would have to be compared with a control group. Therefore, two groups matched for sex, religion, school grade, intelligence quotient, ethnic background, and socio-economic status were obtained. In order to establish whether or not there is a difference between the groups, the Thematic Apperception Test, Rosen's Value Orientation, and Rosen's Level of Aspiration Scale were administered.

Theory

Merton has established a workable theory on alienation. He deals largely with alienation as it applies to adolescents. If there is a discrepancy between the goals stressed within a culture and the approved norms of attaining these goals, there is pressure placed upon the individual to adopt other methods of reaching these goals. These other methods quite often are illegitimate. A specific example which Merton develops is the "American Success-Theme." Our culture places much emphasis upon being financially successful. On the other hand, our society also is rather unsympathetic toward those who are not successful. The unsuccessful are, in fact, blamed for their lack of success. This theory has been modified and has broader application. Alienation can be expressed in various ways and in varying degree. Social isolation is particularly relevant to this study.

This thesis uses the theory of alienation as a plausible explanation for the discrepancy between welfare and non-welfare children on academic achievement, achievement, value orientation, and level of aspiration.

Instruments and Procedure

A sample of thirty-four grade seven welfare students was identified within the lower socio-economic class. These were matched with a non-welfare sample. During the month of June, the Thematic Apperception Test, Rosen's Value Orientation

Scale, and Rosen's Level of Aspiration Scale were administered. The parents of most of the students were also interviewed. The interview consisted of the Value Orientation Scale. In addition to the information obtained on the above measures, the school principals consented to forward to the writer the final standing granted each student in six subject areas. (Mathematics, Literature, Language, Science, Social Studies, and Spelling). The results obtained were placed on IBM cards and with the appropriate program the operations were carried out by the IBM 7040 computer. The operations consisted of "t" tests and correlations.

Hypothesis

Using the theory of alienation, it was hypothesized (a) that the welfare sample would tend to have lower scores on n Achievement (TAT), value orientation, level of aspiration, and academic achievement than the non-welfare sample; (b) that there would be a significant correlation between the students' responses and the responses of their parents on the value orientation scale.

Findings

The results were not as significant as predicted. The differences between the two groups were not large enough to be statistically significant at the .05 level of significance. However, the differences between the two groups were

all pointing the same direction--that is, on every measurement the mean from the non-welfare group was larger than the mean of the welfare group.

Consequently, although it was not possible to accept the hypotheses as stated, there seemed to be good reason not to reject them completely. The present-future orientation did produce a significant difference between the control sample and the experimental sample at the .05 level of significance.

The sign test was applied to the academic achievement scores. The results indicated that the two groups did differ significantly at the .05 level of significance.

IMPLICATIONS

If it is valid to conclude that alienation is a contributing factor to the differences between welfare and non-welfare children on the measurements used in this study, there are a number of implications which appear worthy of mention.

1. Low academic achievement among welfare students seems to be related to value orientation and a general feeling of anomie. If the schools are to help these students they should take account of their special problems possibly by providing counselling. Specific aims of this counselling would be to (a) reintegrate the welfare student into the

value structure of society, and (b) to encourage them to choose school programs and careers which coincide with their abilities and interests and not limit themselves to those normally implied by their social status.

2. Because the basic problem of these students may be alienation, group counselling should be considered. At first, this might help the welfare students appreciate that they have common problems, and second, non-welfare students might be added to the group to facilitate reintegration into society.

3. There should be a concerted effort on the part of social workers and educators to help children of welfare recipients take an active role in school and community organizations and activities.

4. The study may also suggest that the whole concept of social welfare should be studied. If, as seems likely, the children of families on welfare have a lower level of academic achievement than comparable children, then the welfare children may themselves become the next generation of

welfare recipients. This would suggest that some modification of social welfare or the attitudes of society to the recipients of welfare may be necessary to break the circle.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Appendix B

Appendix C

INSTRUCTIONS AND PROCEDURES OF TAT

This is a test of your creative imagination. A number of pictures will be projected on the screen before you. You will have twenty seconds to look at the picture and then about four minutes to make up a story about it. Notice that there is one page for each picture. The same four questions are asked. They will guide your thinking and enable you to cover all the elements of a plot in the time allotted. Plan to spend about a minute on each question. I will keep time and tell you when it is time to go on to the next question for each story. You will have a little time to finish your story before the next picture is shown.

Obviously, there are no right or wrong answers, so you may feel free to make up any kind of a story about the picture that you choose. Try to make them vivid and dramatic, for this is a test of creative imagination. Do not merely describe the picture you see. Tell a story about it. Work as fast as you can in order to finish in time. Make them interesting. Are there any questions? If you need more space for any question, use the reverse side.

The room was then darkened for twenty seconds while the first picture was projected on the screen. After twenty seconds the picture was turned off, the lights were turned on and the subjects began writing. The experimenter kept time,

and after a minute had been allowed for each question, would say, "All right, it is about time to go on to the next question." When the subjects had been writing for thirty seconds on the last question the experimenter would say, "Try to finish up in thirty seconds." At the end of the final minute he would begin to prepare for the next picture, allowing no more than fifteen seconds more than the required time for finishing the stories. The lights would be dimmed and the next picture projected on the screen for twenty seconds and so on without interruption until all four stories had been written.

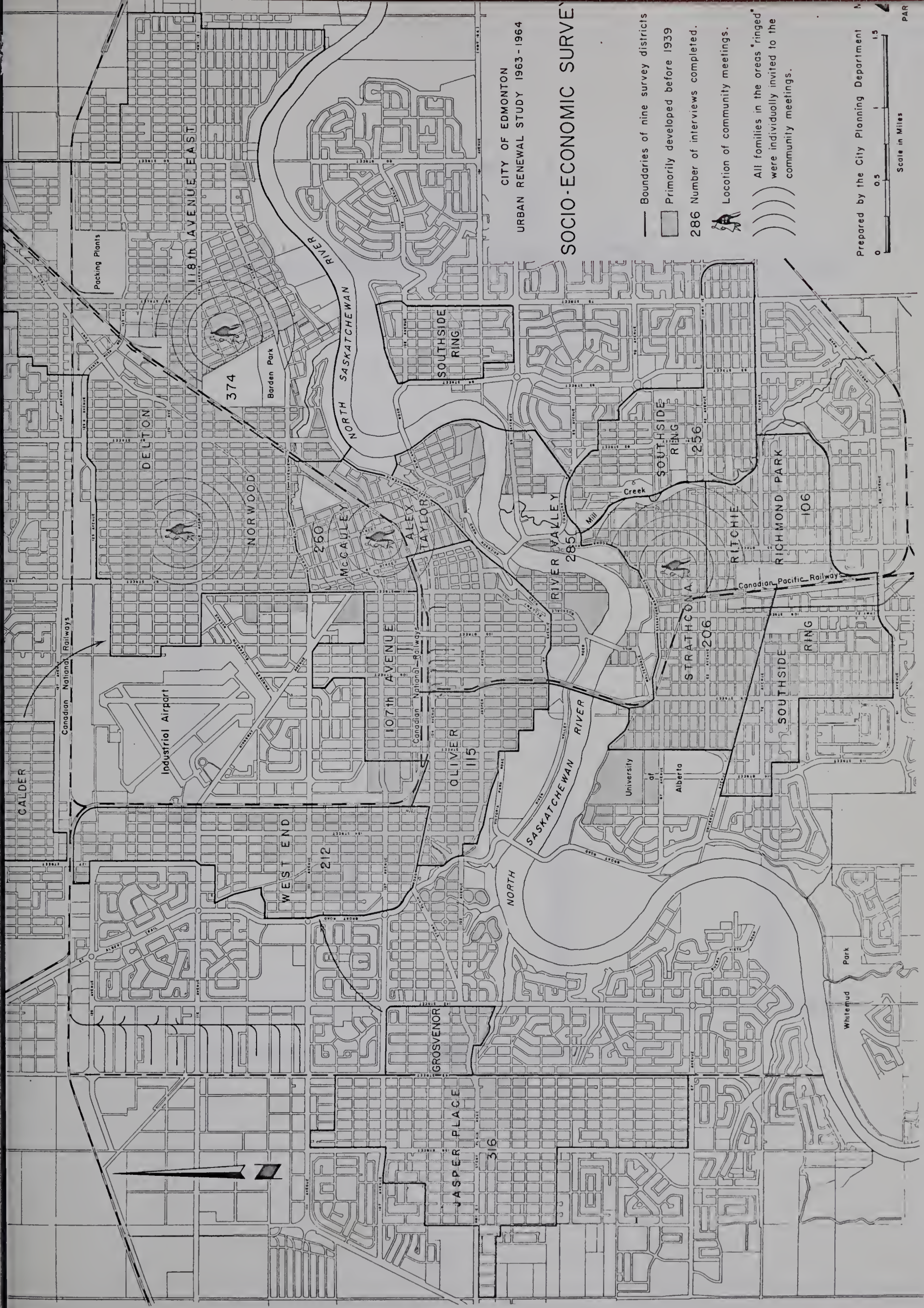
The four pictures used are designed as B, H, A, and G in order of presentation.

Picture B . . . two workmen beside a machine

Picture H . . . boy in homework scene

Picture A . . . father-son picture (TAT 7BM)

Picture G . . . boy and operation scene (TAT 8BM)



CITY OF EDMONTON
URBAN RENEWAL STUDY 1963-1964

SOCIO-ECONOMIC SURVEY

- Boundaries of nine survey districts
- Primarily developed before 1939
- 286 Number of interviews completed.
- Location of community meetings.
- All families in the areas 'ringed' were individually invited to the community meetings.

Prepared by the City Planning Department
Scale in Miles
0 0.5 1 1.5

APPENDIX B

TABLE VII

RAW SCORE, WELFARE SAMPLE

L.D. No.	TAT [★]	Rosen	Academic Achievement
1	4	15	71
3	6	15	78
5	5	14	41
7	9	14	84
9	5	13	45
11	6	12	48
13	6	13	78
15	4	13	63
17	5	13	60
19	8	14	48
21	5	18	40
23	6	13	51
25	1	13	50
27	5	15	60
29	4	14	73
31	4	12	36
33	5	13	69
35	5	12	53
37	7	14	63
39	7	13	66
41	8	14	70
43	7	14	69
45	4	12	62
47	5	16	77
49	10	15	80
51	8	14	63
53	7	14	71
55	2	15	69
57	9	14	48
59	9	15	53
61	11	13	61

★ A constant of 4 is added to each score.

TABLE VIII
RAW DATA, NON-WELFARE SAMPLE

I.D. No.	TAT	Rosen	Academic Achievement
2	4	16	81
4	6	16	83
6	7	14	47
8	8	13	71
10	6	12	59
12	5	16	83
14	5	12	70
16	11	14	63
18	4	14	60
20	8	14	53
22	4	14	41
24	10	16	74
26	4	14	82
28	5	15	56
30	4	15	60
32	7	12	71
34	4	14	80
36	12	15	74
38	5	15	63
40	4	17	69
42	11	15	85
44	10	15	71
46	6	13	44
48	6	13	73
50	4	13	71
52	4	13	53
54	8	16	66
56	4	15	54
58	10	15	63
60	6	16	64
62	8	16	63

* A constant of 4 is added to each score.

TABLE IX
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, SUBJECT MEANS

		Math.	Science	Social Studies	
Non-Welfare	X	60.32	61.84	62.74	
Welfare	Y	<u>55.48</u>	<u>56.52</u>	<u>58.87</u>	
Sign of X-Y		+ 4.84	+ 5.32	+ 3.87	
		Liter- ture	Language	Spelling	Total Mean
Non-Welfare	X	64.35	64.45	78.13	66.03
Welfare	Y	<u>58.87</u>	<u>60.32</u>	<u>75.74</u>	<u>61.29</u>
Sign of X-Y		5.48	4.13	2.39	4.74

TABLE X

VALUE ORIENTATION OF STUDENTS, VALUE ORIENTATION OF PARENTS
AND LEVEL OF ASPIRATION OF STUDENTS.
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND
TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE

<u>Value Orientation of Students</u>						
	XBAR1	XBAR2	SDEV1	SDEV2	DF	T
Activistic-passivistic	3.19	3.35	0.40	0.60	60	1.232
Familistic-individual- istic	6.06	6.29	0.91	0.85	60	0.991
Present-future	4.65	4.90	0.48	0.53	60	1.979
Total Scale	13.87	14.45	1.26	1.34	60	1.727

<u>Value Orientation of Parents</u>						
Activistic-passivistic	2.68	2.71	1.09	1.27	53	0.105
Familistic-individual- istic	5.03	5.39	2.19	2.60	52	0.572
Present-future	3.81	4.03	1.61	1.89	52	0.497
Total scale	11.52	12.06	4.54	5.50	52	0.421

<u>Level of Aspiration of Students</u>						
Rosen scale	55.91	58.33	9.54	10.74	60	0.920

TABLE XI
 "t" TEST OF GROUPS BY SUBJECTS

	XBAR1	XBAR2	SDVE1	SDVE2	DF	T
Mathematics	55.48	60.32	20.13	17.41	60	0.996
Science	56.52	61.84	12.96	15.48	60	1.444
Social Studies	58.87	62.74	14.24	13.07	60	1.097
Literature	58.87	64.35	16.15	15.23	60	1.353
Language	60.32	64.45	15.29	13.03	60	1.126
Spelling	75.74	78.13	14.57	15.72	60	0.610
Averages	61.29	66.03	12.64	11.54	60	1.517

TABLE XII
CORRELATION BETWEEN PARENTS
AND STUDENTS ON VALUES

	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	0.201	0.116	0.367	0.074
2	0.201	1.000	0.630	0.781	0.237
3	0.116	0.630	1.000	0.327	-0.071
4	0.367	0.781	0.327	1.000	-0.112
5	-0.074	0.237	-0.071	-0.112	1.000
6	0.183	0.062	0.119	0.081	0.045
7	-0.015	-0.045	-0.009	-0.058	0.100
8	0.296	0.175	0.113	0.204	0.133
9	-0.096	-0.032	0.134	-0.076	-0.104

Factors

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Rosen's Scale Students | 6. Rosen's Scale Parents |
| 2. Activistic-passivistic | 7. Activistic-passivistic |
| 3. Familistic-individualistic | 8. Familistic-individual-
istic |
| 4. Present-future | 9. Present-future |
| 5. Other data (not used) | |

TABLE XII (continued)

	6	7	8	9
1	0.183	0.015	0.269	0.096
2	0.062	-0.045	0.175	-0.032
3	0.119	-0.009	0.113	0.134
4	0.081	-0.058	0.204	-0.076
5	0.045	0.100	0.133	-0.104
6	1.000	0.382	0.766	0.453
7	0.382	1.000	0.044	0.072
8	0.766	0.044	1.000	-0.082
9	0.453	0.072	-0.082	1.000

Factores

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Rosen's Scale Students | 6. Rosen's Scale Parents |
| 2. Activistic-passivistic | 7. Activistic-passivistic |
| 3. Familistic-individualistic | 8. Familistic-individualistic |
| 4. Present-future | 9. Present-future |
| 5. Other data (not used) | |

TABLE XIII
NEED ACHIEVEMENT MEANS FOR THE GROUPS
AND LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE

Non-welfare	\bar{X}	6.45
Welfare	Y	6.19
$"t" = 0.448$		

TABLE XIV
LEVEL OF ASPIRATION OF THE TWO GROUPS
SHOWN IN PERCENTAGES

School Aspiration	Welfare	Non-Welfare
Aspires to go to college	80.64%	80.64%
Does not aspire to go to college	19.36%	19.36%
N	31	31

APPENDIX C

ROSEN'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____ Grade _____ Age _____

Instructions: Read each statement, and then check whether you agree or disagree with it.

- | | <u>Agree</u> | <u>Disagree</u> |
|---|--------------|-----------------|
| 1. Even though parents often seem too strict, when a person gets older he will realize it was beneficial. | _____ | _____ |
| 2. If my parents told me to stop seeing a friend of my own sex, I'd see that friend anyway. | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Parents seem to believe that you can't take the opinion of a teenager seriously. | _____ | _____ |
| 4. Parents would be greatly upset if their son ended up doing factory labour. | _____ | _____ |
| 5. All I want out of life in the way of a career is a secure, not too difficult, job, with enough pay to afford a nice car and eventually a home of my own. | _____ | _____ |
| 6. When a man is born, the success he is going to have is already decided, so he might just as well accept it and not fight against it. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. It's silly for a teenager to put money in a car when the money could be used for an education or to start a business. | _____ | _____ |
| 8. The best kind of job is one where you are part of an organization all working together, even if you don't get individual credit. | _____ | _____ |

9. Even when teenagers get married, their main loyalty still belongs to their Mother and Father. Agree Disagree

10. Education and learning are more important in determining a person's happiness than money and what it will buy. _____
11. When the time comes for a boy to take a job, he should stay near his parents even if it means giving up a good job. _____
12. Planning only makes a person unhappy since your plans hardly ever work out anyway. _____
13. Nowadays with world conditions the way they are, the wise person lives for today and lets tomorrow take care of itself. _____
14. Nothing in life is worth the sacrifice of moving away from your parents. _____
15. Do you plan to finish Grade XII? Yes _____
No _____
16. Which course do you expect to take in high school:
Check one:
- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| Business education _____ | Industrial shop _____ |
| Home economic _____ | Agriculture _____ |
| Academic _____ | General _____ |
17. If you were able to arrange it, would you attend university?
Yes _____
No _____
18. If you could choose, what job would you like to have when you're an adult?

Name _____ School _____

1. What is happening? Who are the persons? _____

2. What has led up to this situation? That is, what has happened
in the past?

3. What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom? _____

4. What will happen? What will be done? _____

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